

Good Teaching Matters: How Well-Qualified Teachers Can Close the Gap

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For decades, educators, educators-in-training, and the public more broadly have been relentlessly fed the same message about achievement among poor and minority students: "Because of poverty and other neighborhood conditions, these students enter school behind other students. As they progress through the grades, the deficits accumulate, leaving them further and further behind other students." Their conclusion? Nothing schools do makes a very big difference.

As an organization, we have questioned the prevailing explanation for some time. "If poverty always overwhelms everything else," we ask, "what explains the 89 percent pass rate on the Texas state assessment by the Loma Terrace School in El Paso, where almost 90 percent of the children are poor? Or what about the 95 percent fourth-grade pass rate on the same exam by the entire Mission Independent School District, with a 94 percent poverty rate? And why, if schools really don't make a difference, are the low-income students in Community School District 32 in New York City performing so much higher now than were their counterparts a decade ago?"

Always, the response is the same: "It's that superstar principal/superintendent [*choose one*]. We can't expect those kinds of feats from the mere mortals who lead most of our schools."

But what if that answer is wrong? What if these schools are succeeding not on the force of someone's personality, but simply by teaching students what they need to know to perform at high levels? What if, in other words, poor and minority students are performing below other students not because something is wrong with them or their families, but because most schools don't bother to teach them what they need to know?

By now, those of you who are familiar with our work at the Education Trust know that we are absolutely convinced—by both research and extensive experience in classrooms all over the country—that poor and minority youngsters will achieve at the same high levels as other students if they are taught at those levels. In our groundbreaking report, *Education Watch: The Education Trust National and State Data Book*, we document the clear relationship between low standards, low-level curriculum, undereducated teachers, and poor results. We argue further that if states and school districts work hard on these three issues, they can close the achievement gap.

Most of the time, we have felt as Ron Edmonds undoubtedly felt: surrounded by researchers clinging to dog-eared copies of the Coleman Report and arguing that nothing works. Recently, however, a number of large-scale studies have provided convincing proof that what we do in education does matter. Schools—and especially teachers, it turns out—really *do* make a difference. Earlier educational researchers just did not have very good ways of measuring the variables.

Our focus in this paper is on what all of the studies conclude is the most significant factor in student achievement: the teacher. We focus here not because we think improvements in teachers' capabilities or changes in teacher assignment patterns are by themselves a silver bullet but because such changes are clearly more important to increasing student achievement—especially among poor and minority students—than any other.

We focus on teacher qualifications here also because this is an issue within our power to change. If we but took the simple step of assuring that poor and minority children had teachers of the same quality as other children, about half of the achievement gap would disappear. If we went further and assigned our best teachers to the students who most need them (a step, by the way, that makes sense to most people outside of education), there is persuasive evidence to suggest that we could entirely close the gap.

Thought-provoking, yes? Read on.

Good Teaching Matters . . . a Lot

Parents have always known that it matters a lot which teachers their children get. That is why those with the time and skills to do so work very hard to ensure that, by hook or by crook, their children are assigned to the best teachers. (That is also at least part of the reason why the children of less-skilled parents are often left with the worst teachers, but more on that later.)

Professional educators typically reject these notions. When parents ask for their children to be assigned to a particular teacher, or to be moved out of the classroom of another, most principals counsel them not to worry: "Your child will learn what he or she needs to from any of our teachers."

Recent research from Tennessee, Texas, Massachusetts, and Alabama proves that parents have been right all along. They may not always know which teachers really are the best, but they are absolutely right in believing that their children will learn a lot from one teacher and only a little from another—even though the two teachers may be in adjacent classrooms. "The difference between a good and a bad teacher can be a full level of achievement in a single school year," says Eric

Hanushek, the University of Rochester economist notorious for macroanalyses suggesting that virtually nothing seems to make a difference.¹

Teacher Effects: Tennessee

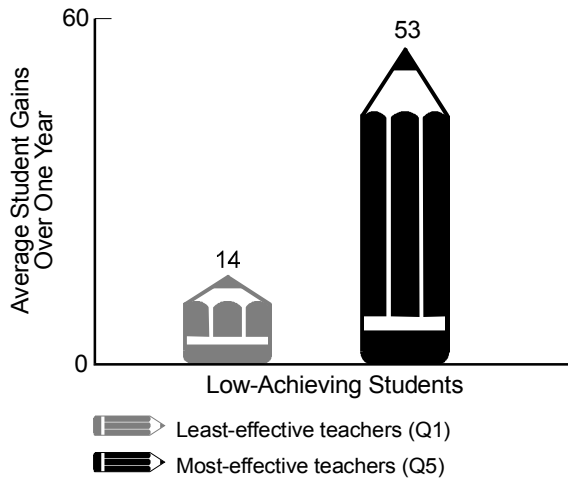
Tennessee is one of the few states with data systems that make it possible to tie teachers to achievement in their classrooms. Moreover, the state's value-added approach for assessing student achievement allows observers to look at the gains students make during a particular school year.

William L. Sanders, director of the Value-Added Research and Assessment Center at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, has studied these data extensively. By grouping teachers into quintiles based on their effectiveness in producing student learning gains, his work allows us to examine the impact of teacher effectiveness on the learning of different types of students, from low to high achievers.

Figure 1 shows the effect teachers from different quintile levels have on low-achieving students. On average, the least-effective teachers (Q1) produced gains of about 14 percentile points during the school year. By contrast, the most-effective teachers (Q5) posted gains among low-achieving students that averaged 53 percentile points.

¹ Hanushek, E. A. (1992). The trade-off between child quantity and quality. Journal of Political Economy.

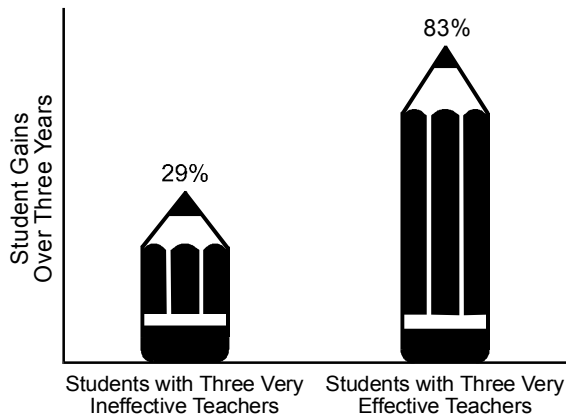
Figure 1
The Effect of Different Teachers on
Low-Achieving Students: Tennessee



Source: "Cumulative and Residual Effects of Teachers on Future Student Academic Achievement," by William L. Sanders and June C. Rivers, 1996, Table 1, p. 9.

The Tennessee data show dramatic differences for middle- and high-achieving groups of students, too. For example, high-achieving students gain an average of only 2 points under the direction of Q1 (least-effective) teachers but an average of 25 points under the guidance of Q5 (most-effective) teachers. Middle achievers gain a mere 10 points with Q1 teachers but realize point gains in the mid-30s with Q5 teachers.

Figure 2
Cumulative Effects of Teacher Sequence
on Fifth-Grade Math Scores: Tennessee



Source: "Cumulative and Residual Effects of Teachers on Future Student Academic Achievement," by William L. Sanders and June C. Rivers, 1996, Figure 1, p. 12.

There is also considerable evidence that, at least in Tennessee, the effects of teachers are long lived, whether they advance student achievement or squash it. Indeed, even two years after the fact, the performance of fifth-grade students is still affected by the quality of their third-grade teachers. Figure 2 shows examples of different patterns of teacher effectiveness for one metropolitan system. As Sanders points out, students whose initial achievement levels are comparable have "vastly different academic outcomes as a result of the sequence of teachers to which they are assigned."² Differences of this magnitude—50 percentile points—are stunning. As all of us know only too well, they can represent the difference between a "remedial" label and placement in the accelerated, or even gifted, track. And the difference between entry into a selective college and a lifetime at a hamburger joint.

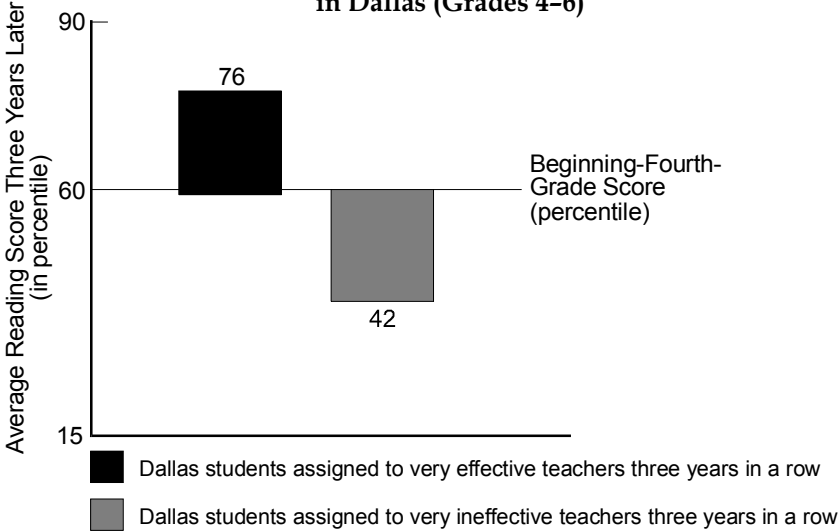
² Sanders, W. L., & Rivers, J. C. (1996). Cumulative and residual effects of teachers on future student academic achievement, p. 9.

Teacher Effects: Dallas

A variety of recent studies in Texas show comparable differences in achievement among students taught by teachers of differing quality. Borrowing from some of Sanders's techniques, researchers in the Dallas Independent School District recently completed their first study ever of teacher effects on the ability of students to perform on assessments. In sharing their findings, Robert Mendro, the district's executive director of institutional research, said, "What surprised us the most was the size of the effect."³ For example, as shown in Figure 3, the average reading scores of a group of Dallas fourth graders who were assigned to highly effective teachers three years in a row rose from the 59th percentile in fourth grade to the 76th percentile by the conclusion of sixth grade. A fairly similar (but slightly higher-achieving) group of students was assigned three consecutive ineffective teachers and fell from the 60th percentile in fourth grade to the 42nd percentile by the end of sixth grade. A gap of this magnitude—34 percentile points—for students who started off roughly the same is hugely significant.

³ Archer, J. (1998, February 18). Students' fortune rests with assigned teacher. Education Week. Washington, D.C.

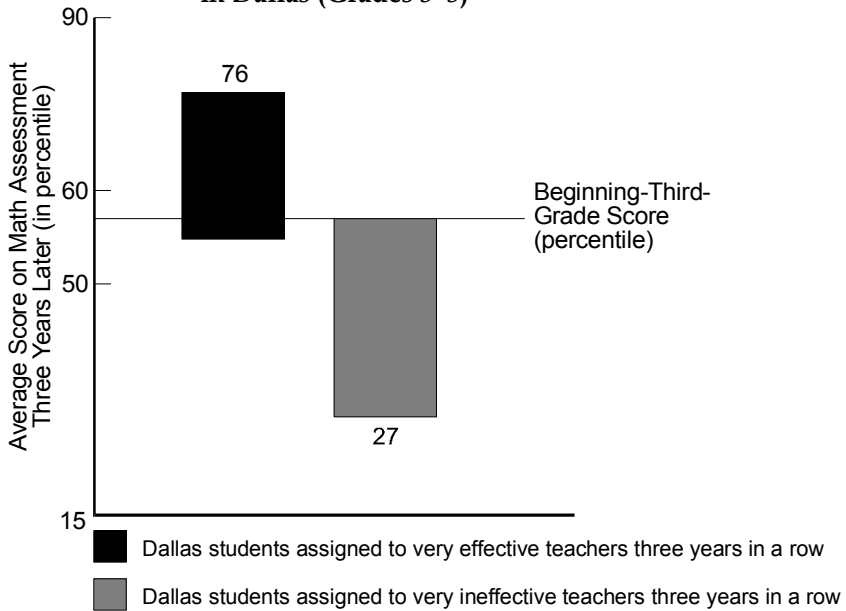
Figure 3
Effects on Students' Reading Scores
in Dallas (Grades 4-6)



Source: "Teacher Effects on Longitudinal Student Achievement," by Heather Jordan, Robert Mendro, and Dash Weerasinghe, 1997.

The impact of teacher effectiveness is also clear in mathematics. For example, as shown in Figure 4, a group of beginning third graders in Dallas who averaged around the 55th percentile in mathematics scored around the 76th percentile at the end of fifth grade after being assigned to highly effective teachers three years in a row. By contrast, a slightly higher-achieving group of third graders—averaging around the 57th percentile—were consecutively taught by three of the least effective teachers. By the conclusion of the fifth grade, the second group's percentile ranking had fallen to the 27th percentile. This time the youngsters, who had scored nearly the same as beginning third graders, were separated by nearly 50 percentile points just three years later.

Figure 4
Effects on Students' Math Scores
in Dallas (Grades 3-5)

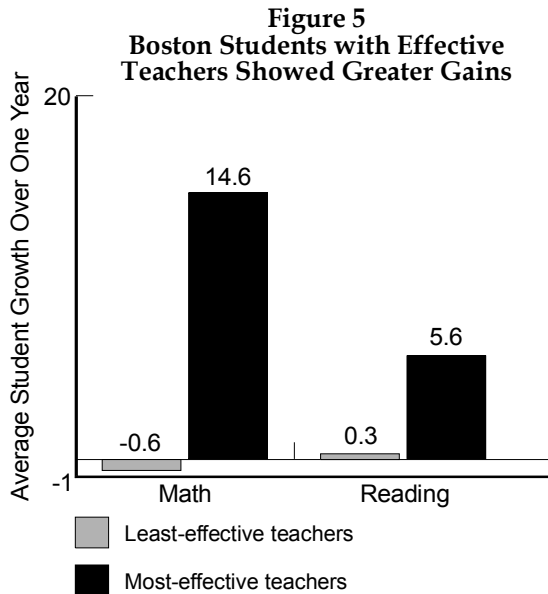


Source: "Teacher Effects on Longitudinal Student Achievement,"
by Heather Jordan, Robert Mendro, and Dash Weerasinghe, 1997.

Teacher Effects: Boston

In Massachusetts, the Boston public schools are taking a serious look at factors that influence student learning, including the effectiveness of their teachers. A recently released study by Bain and Company conducted on behalf of the district shows the correlation between high school teachers and their students' academic growth in math and reading. The authors examined classrooms of Boston public school tenth graders whose average scores were approximately the same and charted their progress by teacher over the year. As shown in Figure 5, the differences were dramatic. In reading, they found that although the gains of students with the top-third teachers were slightly below the national median for growth (5.6 compared to 8.0 nationally),

the students with teachers from the bottom third showed virtually no growth (0.3). The math results were even more striking. The top-third teachers produced gains on average that exceeded the national median (14.6 compared to 11.0 nationally), whereas the bottom third showed no growth (-0.6).



Source: "High School Restructuring," Boston Public Schools, March 9, 1998.

Altogether, this means that one third of Boston public school teachers are producing six times the learning seen in the bottom third. As one frustrated headmaster put it, "About one third of my teachers should not be teaching."

What Makes for Teacher Effectiveness?

None of these studies has yet advanced to the obvious next step: identifying the qualities that make for an effective teacher. But other researchers have used Texas's extensive database on both teachers and students to examine the impact of specific teacher characteristics on student achievement. Together with work from Alabama and North Carolina, this research helps us get underneath the matter of teacher effectiveness.

Strong Verbal and Math Skills

The first thing that is clear when you look across the various studies is the critical importance of strong verbal and math skills. Harvard's Ronald F. Ferguson, for example, has looked closely at the relationship between student achievement and teacher performance on a basic literacy examination (the Texas Examination of Current Administrators and Teachers [TECAT], which was administered to all teachers and administrators in Texas in 1986). Ferguson found a significant positive relationship between teacher test scores on the TECAT and student scores on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS), with higher-scoring teachers more likely to produce significant gains in student achievement than their lower-scoring counterparts. Indeed, a change of one standard deviation in a district's teacher scores produced a corresponding change of .17 standard deviation in student scores, when other differences were controlled.⁴

Ferguson got similar results in an analysis of the impact of teacher and classroom qualities on student achievement scores in Alabama. As in the Texas studies, he found a strong

⁴ Ferguson, R. F. (1997). Evidence that schools can narrow the black-white test score gap, p. 32.

positive relationship between teacher test scores (in this case, ACT® scores) and student achievement results.⁵

Deep Content Knowledge

There is also considerable research showing how important teachers' content knowledge is to their effectiveness with students, especially at the middle and senior high school levels. The data are especially clear in mathematics and science, where teachers with majors in the fields they teach routinely get higher student performance than teachers without. Goldhaber and Brewer examined this relationship using data from the National Educational Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS), an ongoing survey of individuals who were in eighth grade in 1988. Goldhaber and Brewer found a significant positive relationship between teachers' degrees and students' achievement in technical subjects. They concluded that "in mathematics and science, it is the teacher subject-specific knowledge that is the important factor in determining tenth-grade achievement."⁶

The data are less clear in English and social studies; in these subjects students taught by teachers with these majors do not show consistently better scores than students taught by teachers who majored in something else. However, other evidence suggests that content is no less important in these two disciplines. For example, a recent study in Hawaii asked social studies teachers to rate their own level of understanding about various historical periods and teaching

⁵ Ferguson, R. F., & Ladd, H. F. (1996). How and why money matters: An analysis of Alabama schools. Holding schools accountable: Performance-based reform in education. Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institute.

⁶ Goldhaber, D. D., & Brewer, D. J. (1996). Evaluating the effect of teacher degree level on educational performance. Developments in School Finance, p. 199.

methods; the study then compared teacher expertise to student achievement. Not surprisingly, there was an almost-perfect match; students performed best in the domains where teachers indicated the most expertise.⁷

Teaching Skill?

All of this seems to beg the questions, What about teaching knowledge and skills? Is content knowledge really sufficient for effective teaching? Clearly not. One only has to spend a few semesters in higher education to see that the deep content knowledge inherent in the Ph.D. does not necessarily lead to effective teaching.

That said, the large-scale studies we have reviewed are not particularly helpful in identifying ways to quantify teaching expertise. Education courses completed, advanced education degrees, scores on professional knowledge sections of licensure exams, even, interestingly, years of experience—none seem to have a clear relationship to student achievement. Perhaps the work going on at the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards or Lee Shulman's work on "pedagogical content knowledge" at the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching will advance our understanding of—and options for developing and measuring—teaching knowledge and skill.

In the meantime, we suggest that educational leaders not get sidetracked—there is more than sufficient evidence about the importance of deep content knowledge and strong verbal skills to serve as a foundation for immediate action. At the very least, we know enough to broach the question with

⁷ Baker, E. L. (1996). Report on the content area performance assessments (CAPA): A collaboration among Hawaii Dept. of Education, the Center for Research on Evaluation Standards and Student Testing, and the teachers and children of Hawaii, p. 17.

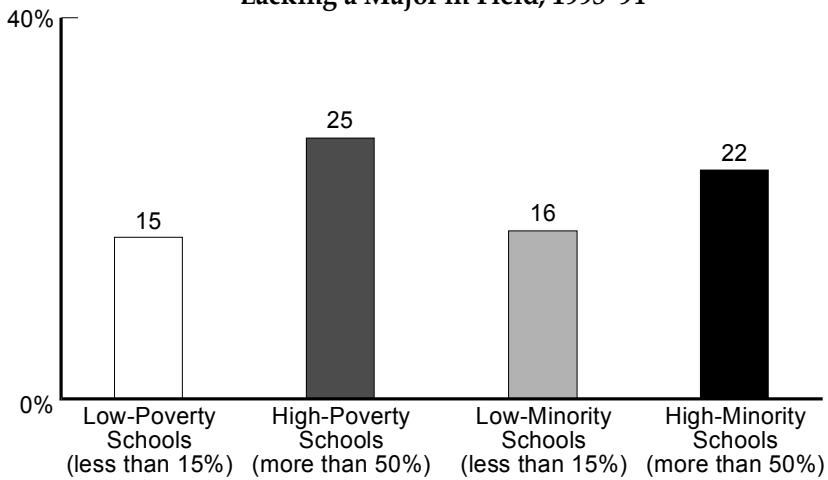
faculty in the arts and sciences, who, after all, are responsible for developing both content knowledge and verbal skills among intending teachers. It is also enough to justify a second look at hiring and assignment criteria. If good teachers matter, we need to be sure that we are getting the best we can.

Inequities in Distribution

Our emerging understanding of the critical importance of good teachers has especially profound implications for poor and minority youngsters, because no matter how quality is defined, these youngsters come up on the short end. While the teaching force in high-poverty and high-minority communities certainly includes some of the most dedicated and talented teachers in the country, the truth is that these teachers are vastly outnumbered by under- and, indeed, *unqualified* colleagues.

These patterns are clear in national data tabulations of out-of-field teaching specially prepared for the Education Trust earlier this year by Richard Ingersoll, a professor at the University of Georgia. As is evident in Figure 6 (as well as in the state tabulations in Appendix B), minority and poor youngsters—the very youngsters who are most dependent on their teachers for content knowledge—are systematically taught by teachers with the least content knowledge.

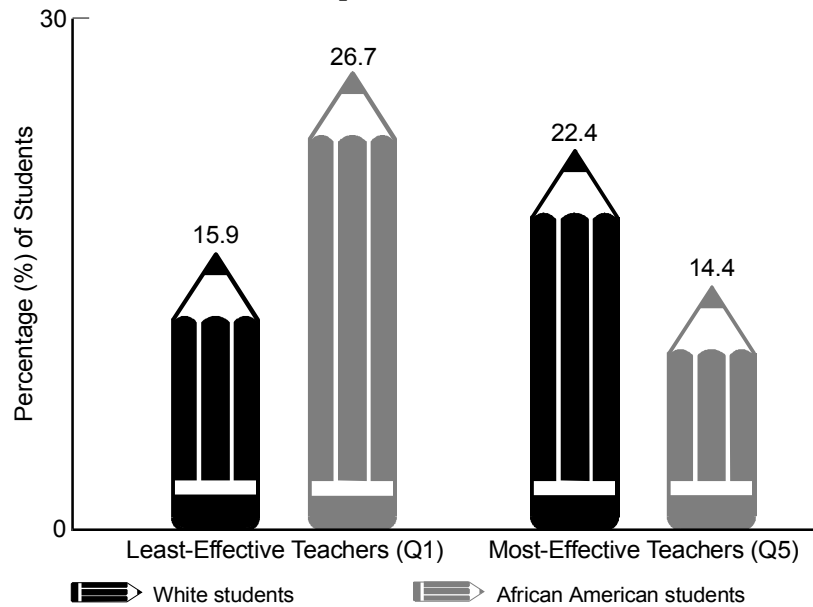
Figure 6
Percentage of Classes Taught by Teachers
Lacking a Major in Field, 1993-94



Source: Richard Ingersoll, University of Georgia, unpublished, 1998.

Similar inequities show up at all grade levels in the state-level studies described above, and many more. For example (see Figure 7), in Tennessee, African American students are almost twice as likely to be taught by ineffective Q1 teachers as are white children and are considerably less likely to be taught by the most-effective teachers.

Figure 7
African American Students Are More Likely to
Have Underqualified Teachers: Tennessee



Source: "Cumulative and Residual Effects of Teachers on Future Student Academic Achievement," by William L. Sanders and June C. Rivers, 1996, Table 1, p. 10.

The patterns look quite similar in Texas, where, according to researchers John Kain and Kraig Singleton, African American and Latino children are far more likely to be taught by teachers who scored poorly on the TECAT exam. Indeed, as the percentage of nonwhite children in a school increases, the average teacher score declines.⁸ Finding the same patterns in his analysis, Ronald Ferguson wrote that "[i]n Texas, and certainly in other places, too, attracting and retaining talented

⁸ Kain, J. F., & Singleton, K. (1996, May/June). Equality of educational opportunity revisited. *New England Economic Review*, p. 109.

people with strong skills to teach in the districts where black students are heavily represented is part of the unfinished business of equalizing educational opportunity."⁹

Race More Than Class?

Contrary to the assumptions that many people may make, inequities in the distribution of teacher expertise are not driven wholly by finances. If they were, we would expect that poor minority children would have teachers of about the same quality as poor white children. But such is not always the case.

In their analysis of Texas data, Kain and Singleton found disturbing differences. Poor white children, it turns out, appear to have a higher likelihood of having well-qualified teachers than do poor African American children.¹⁰

Similar patterns are evident in teacher quality data from other states. In the chart in Appendix B, for example, it is clear that students who attend predominantly minority secondary schools in Virginia are more likely to be taught by underqualified teachers than are students who attend high-poverty secondary schools. The same is true in Pennsylvania, Tennessee, and Oklahoma: students in high-minority secondary schools are more likely to be taught by teachers without a college major in the subject they are teaching.

The problems in inner cities are particularly acute, according to a 1995 report from the National Governors Association: "Emergency hiring, assignment of teachers outside their fields of preparation, and high turnover in underfunded schools conspire to produce a situation in which many poor

⁹ Ferguson, p. 30.

¹⁰ Kain & Singleton, p. 109.

and minority students are taught throughout their entire school careers by a steady stream of the least qualified and experienced teachers."¹¹

A More Equitable Distribution of Teacher Expertise

What would happen if minority and poor children had teachers of the same quality as other children? A large part of the gap would simply disappear. The estimates vary somewhat depending upon the statistical model used, but in no case is the effect minor. Ferguson's modeling for several metropolitan Alabama districts suggests that an increase of one standard deviation in the test scores of teachers who teach black children would produce a decline of about two-thirds in the black/white test-score gap in that state.¹² Strauss's study of student achievement in North Carolina suggested that a 1 percent relative increase in teacher scores on the NTE® would bring about a 5 percent relative decline in the percentage of students who fail standardized competency exams.¹³ In other words, much of what we have blamed on children and their families for decades is actually the result of things we have done to them. As a nation, we have deprived our neediest students of the very ingredient most important to learning: a highly qualified teacher.

In his analyses of the Texas data base, Ferguson found a small number of school districts that are exceptions to the

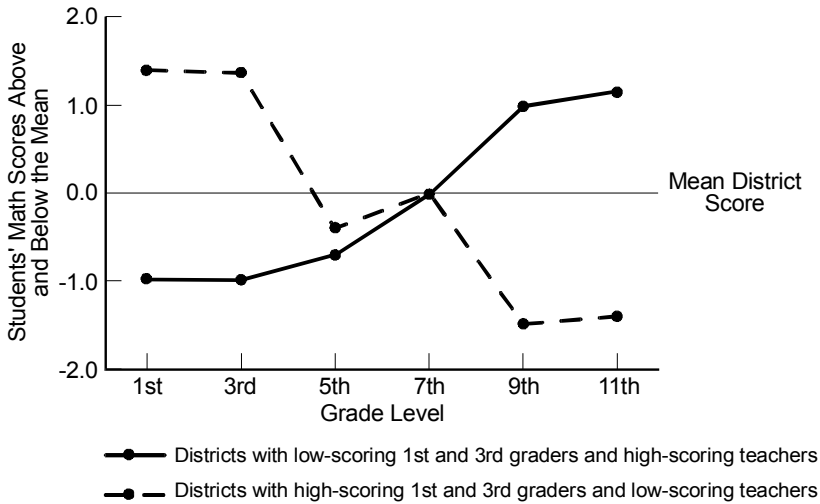
¹¹ Darling-Hammond, L. (1996). The role of teacher expertise and experience in students' opportunity to learn. Strategies for linking school finance and students' opportunity to learn. Washington, D.C.: National Governors Association.

¹² Ferguson & Ladd, p. 278.

¹³ Strauss, R. P., & Sawyer, E. A. (1986). Some new evidence on teacher and student competencies. Economics of Education Review, p. 41.

general pattern (see Figure 8). A look at how their youngsters benefit from a steady diet of higher-performing teachers gives us a glimpse of how the national data for poor and minority students *could* look . . . if we had the will.

Figure 8
Long-Range Effects of Low-Scoring and High-Scoring Teachers on Student Achievement (Texas)



Source: "Evidence That Schools Can Narrow the Black-White Test Score Gap," by Ronald F. Ferguson, 1997.

Assuring Qualified Teachers for All of Our Children

These findings have profound implications for states and communities that are striving to get vastly larger numbers of their students to reach high standards of achievement. If education leaders want to accomplish this goal in the near term, they are far more likely to do so if they focus first and foremost on quality—quality in teacher preparation, recruitment, hiring, assignment, and ongoing professional development.

This goes doubly for schools and communities with concentrations of poor and minority children. Rather than continuing to accept the crumbs, these schools and

communities must insist on the very best teachers for their children. After all, poor and minority children depend on their teachers like no others. In the hands of our best teachers, the effects of poverty and institutional racism melt away, allowing these students to soar to the same heights as young Americans from more-advantaged homes. But if they remain in the hands of underqualified teachers, poor and minority students will continue to fulfill society's limited expectations of them.

What, then, are the elements of a strategy to ensure highly qualified teachers for all young Americans? We do not yet have all the answers. But we know enough to start the conversations. Here are the more powerful ideas we have gleaned from our work with leading states and cities.

Standards for Entry into the Profession

A number of states are raising the standards for entry into the profession. Virginia, for example, has raised both course requirements in the arts and sciences and cut-scores on the Praxis examinations for aspiring teachers. Massachusetts has devised new and much more rigorous examinations, especially in the content areas.

Although these attempts are commendable, it is important to make sure that the measures for teacher content knowledge are solid and aligned with K-12 standards. Preliminary information suggests that existing standards may be too low; an analysis of a widely used test for prospective high school physics teachers, for example, featured content that one reviewer described as "appropriate for a rigorous ninth-grade physical science course." If this is correct, these tests are wholly insufficient either to ensure adequate content knowledge of individual teachers or to use for accountability purposes with arts and sciences departments.

Any discussion about raising entry standards for teachers should include an examination of how well the standards align with the K-12 content that candidates will have to teach and the assessments used to find out if candidates can teach this content.

Accountability Measures for Colleges and Universities That Prepare Teachers

In Texas, colleges that have pass rates below 70 percent (soon to be 75 percent) on the state's teacher licensure exam will lose the right to prepare teachers. To be sure that its intentions are understood, the legislature spells out precisely what it means: 70 percent of the white graduates, 70 percent of the Latino graduates, 70 percent of the African American graduates, and so on. Not a single group can be left behind. Moreover, if aspiring math teachers, for example, cannot pass the exam, then the math department loses the franchise. Other states are heading in this direction as well. Universities, together with their nearby school districts, could take the lead from such state-level actions—decide on what intending teachers need to know in their subjects and hold academic departments accountable for getting them there before they graduate.

Professional Development for Existing Teachers

Teacher effectiveness is not forever fixed. Through careful development, teachers can build their effectiveness over time. In Community School District #2 in New York City, Superintendent Tony Alvarado has invested generously in the professional development of his principals and teachers. Focusing initially on reading and then moving to mathematics, Alvarado made sure his teachers, in particular, got lots of on-site coaching from experts. As a result, student achievement has climbed steadily over the past ten years. University of Michigan researcher David Cohen's recent

study of professional development in California also shows the impact on student achievement when the professional development focuses on new curricula and the content that undergirds it.¹⁴ Similar results are evident in broad achievement gains in the three El Paso, Texas, school districts, where more than 50 full-time teacher coaches provide in-school assistance to teachers who strive to improve student achievement.

These successful strategies differ in important ways from many professional development programs and initiatives. Far from a three-hour workshop on isolated topics, these strategies are ongoing, on site, and focused on the content that students should learn.

**Assurance That Poor and Minority Children
Have Teachers Who Are at Least as Qualified
as the Ones Who Teach Other Students**

Ideally, we would push for a policy requiring that for the next two decades or so poor and minority students should systematically be assigned our best teachers. Achieving either goal, though, would require careful attention to:

- just who we are preparing to teach—where they come from and where they want to teach, in particular;
- interdistrict differences in salaries for beginning and midcareer teachers;
- the practice of concentrating beginning teachers in school buildings with concentrations of poor children;
- district policies—often gained through collective bargaining—that reward senior teachers with the "right" to transfer to "easier" schools;

¹⁴ Cohen, D. K., & Hill, H. C. (1998, January). State policy and classroom performance. CPRE Policy Briefs.

- practices within schools where teachers fight over who has to teach whom, with the senior, better-educated teachers often winding up with the most-advanced children; and
- the absence of clear incentives and prevalence of disincentives for teachers to work with poor and minority children.

These practices have been around for so long that they seem beyond change. But some school districts are beginning to make headway on rooting out these inequities. In San Antonio, Texas, for example, new policies on teacher assignment have begun to balance the distribution of teachers within the district. In other districts, special targeting of more highly compensated mentor positions is beginning to even out teacher expertise. Energetic principals can also reverse the normal pattern. For example, in California in the Los Angeles Unified School District, where undercertified and out-of-field teachers are the norm, Principal Lupe Simpson of the all-minority Nimitz Middle School has a mathematics department full of fully certified mathematics majors. How? By working her contacts with local universities.

"Parent Right to Know" Policies

Parents deserve to know when their children are being taught science by history majors or history by physical education grads. To be sure, this knowledge has been available to some (mostly affluent) parents through their community grapevines. But nowhere has there been a systematic way of letting all parents know that their children's teacher has enough background in the subject to teach so their students will understand it. When parents know where the needs are greatest, they can become partners in local efforts to secure an adequate number of well-qualified teachers for all students.

Recruitment and Rewards to Attract the Best into Teaching

We worry that instead of seeking out the very best, too many teacher preparation programs simply make do with what walks in the door. That is not good, because SAT® test scores and other data suggest that the high school seniors who aspire to become teachers are among the least able of all prospective college students. It is also not good for communities with concentrations of minority and poor students, because few of those who aspire to become teachers either grew up in or want to teach in such communities.

Many leaders in teacher preparation programs say that they are doing the best they can—that low salaries and lower prestige make it impossible to attract able candidates, especially minorities, to the teaching profession and higher standards will make it worse. We remain unconvinced. If these claims are correct, then why does Teach for America, which has much higher standards than most education schools, routinely attract far more qualified graduates than it can place? And why, among Teach for America's way-above-average corps members, are there more than twice as many minorities as there are in education schools?¹⁵ The same would appear to be true for alternative certification programs that cater to young or mid-career professionals from other fields: no lack of smart or minority applicants.

¹⁵ Teach for America. (1997). Annual Report. New York: Author.

These experiences and others tell us that we can produce the highly qualified teachers that we need by combining:

- high entry standards;
- rich incentives like generous scholarships and loan forgiveness for highly able professionals who want to teach in high-poverty schools;
- accountability systems that reward departments and campuses for the numbers of their top students who enter teaching; and
- nontraditional yet still rigorous routes into the profession.

These are just some of the pieces of a solution to the vexing problem of ensuring that we have teachers to match our goals. Solving this problem requires concerted action from policy makers, leaders in both K-12 and higher education, teachers' unions, and parents. No single party can win the battle alone. All must be involved and at the table if we are to craft sound policies that will succeed. But we must also understand that we cannot wait until every piece of this puzzle is in hand. Our inability to answer every question about teacher effectiveness right now should not make us reluctant to use the devices we do have to begin to lure the best in, screen others out, and intensively develop the rest. And it certainly should not deter us from doing what it takes to ensure that poor and minority youngsters get at least their fair share of effective, well-prepared teachers.

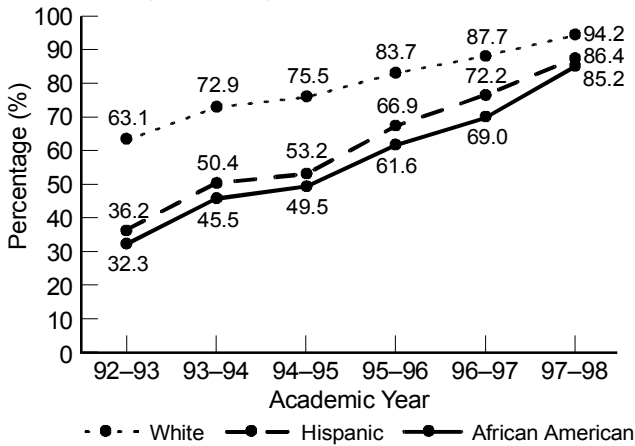
Appendix A:

El Paso Closing the Gap

In 1992 leaders at the University of Texas–El Paso and the three El Paso–area school districts—El Paso, Ysleta, and Socorro—came together to create the El Paso Collaborative, a comprehensive effort to raise student achievement from kindergarten through college. Their goal was to prepare every young person in this highly impoverished border city to be able to enter college without remediation, and the El Paso standards they set reflected that goal.

Over the next five years, they focused hard on what matters most: excellent teaching. Through the collaborative, El Paso teachers received intensive assistance in improving instruction—including summer institutes and regular on-site coaching—funded through a combination of NSF dollars and a redirection of federal and state funds. Meanwhile, leaders at the university made major changes in the way they were preparing teachers, to make sure that such teachers were fully prepared to teach to the El Paso standards.

Figure 9
% of Students Passing TAAS Math
by Ethnicity – Combined 3-8 and 10



Source: The El Paso Collaborative for Academic Excellence, 1998.

The results of their hard work are clear in Figure 9: improved achievement and a narrower gap between groups. This is a refreshing change from the national picture of flat achievement and a widening gap between groups. Investing in teachers really does pay dividends!

Appendix B:

State Investment in Well-Prepared Teachers

The most important educational investment a state can make is in highly qualified teachers. When teachers have too little knowledge of the subjects that they teach, their students are denied the most basic learning resource. There are several ways to examine teacher quality. Figure 10 shows one: the percentage of secondary school classes taught by teachers who lack a college major in the subject area.

Figure 10 shows, by state:

- the overall percentages of classes taught by teachers who do not have a major in the subject that they teach; and
- the percentages of classes taught by teachers who do not have a major in the subject that they are teaching in high-poverty schools/high-minority schools (schools in which more than 50 percent of the students are low income or nonwhite) vs. low-poverty schools/low-minority schools (schools in which fewer than 15 percent of the students are low income or nonwhite).

In reviewing the chart, the reader will see a stark and troubling pattern: low-income students and students of color are less likely than other students to be taught by teachers with a college major in the subject area they are teaching.

The data used to build this chart are drawn from the Schools and Staffing Survey conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) in school year 1993–94. Richard Ingersoll of the University of Georgia conducted the analysis. Although the Schools and Staffing Survey is large scale, in some states the data are inadequate to support stable estimation for certain kinds of schools, so in such cases we have not printed a percentage. There are other cases where

the samples meet normal standards, but The Education Trust staff caution the reader with an "*" that these samples are "on the smallish side" and advise further research.

We have ranked states on the overall quality of their teachers. The fewer underqualified teachers, the better the rank. We also rank states according to disparity in assignment of underqualified teachers. Disparity by school poverty, for example, is the difference between the percentage of classes in high- versus low-poverty schools that are taught by underqualified teachers.

Figure 10

**Percentage of Secondary-School Classes Taught by Teachers
Lacking a Major in Field by State, 1993-1994**

	Overall	(Rank)	By School Poverty			By School Minority Population		
			Low	High	(Rank)	Low	High	(Rank)
Alabama	17%	(21)	14%	23%	(19)	17%	16%	(7)
Alaska	29	(51)	20	48	(33)	23	41	(29)
Arizona	26	(49)	17	37	(31)	26	29	(13)
Arkansas	14	(8)	11	11	(5)	15	14	(7)
California	27	(50)	28	29	(6)	26*	27	(12)
Colorado	20	(33)	17			20	24*	(15)
Connecticut	13	(6)	12			12	15	(13)
Delaware	24	(43)					25	
D.C.	17	(21)					17	
Florida	18	(28)	22	19	(4)	24	17	(2)
Georgia	21	(36)	15	33	(29)	25	19	(3)
Hawaii	24	(43)	13				25	
Idaho	20	(33)	15			19		
Illinois	16	(15)	13	24	(24)	13	25	(25)
Indiana	13	(6)	10	15*	(11)	12	26*	(27)
Iowa	12	(4)	7	17	(23)	12		
Kansas	15	(12)	15			14		
Kentucky	24	(43)	20	29	(19)	24		
Louisiana	23	(40)	9	28	(30)	21	21	(10)
Maine	22	(38)	19			21		
Maryland	17	(21)	13			14	20	(18)
Massachusetts	16	(15)	13	28*	(28)	15	20	(17)
Michigan	17	(21)	14	18	(10)	18	13*	(4)
Minnesota	10	(1)	11	6*	(3)	9		
Mississippi	25	(47)	24*	29	(11)	25	22	(6)
Missouri	14	(8)	12	18*	(15)	14		
Montana	16	(15)	11	35	(32)	16	32*	(28)
Nebraska	14	(8)	16	8*	(1)	14		
Nevada	15	(12)	13			28*		
New Hampshire	14	(8)	13			15		
New Jersey	20	(33)	16	25	(19)	16	24	(22)
New Mexico	22	(38)	21	24	(8)		23	
New York	12	(4)	8	22	(27)	7	18	(24)
North Carolina	19	(31)	11	41	(35)	15	24	(23)
North Dakota	11	(3)	10	17	(17)	11	17*	(18)

Figure 10 (continued)

			By School Poverty			By School Minority Population		
	Overall	(Rank)	Low	High	(Rank)	Low	High	(Rank)
Ohio	19	(31)	16	45	(34)	16	42	(30)
Oklahoma	17	(21)	13	18	(11)	17	23	(18)
Oregon	23	(40)	18			26		
Pennsylvania	16	(15)	15	22	(17)	14	26	(26)
Rhode Island	10	(1)	13*			10		
South Carolina	23	(40)	20	25	(11)	25	21	(5)
South Dakota	16	(15)	14	17	(8)	15		
Tennessee	25	(47)	19	30	(24)	31	19	(1)
Texas	18	(28)	19	21	(7)	19	18	(7)
Utah	16	(15)	18			16		
Vermont	17	(21)	12			16		
Virginia	21	(36)	14	20	(15)	24	24	(10)
Washington	24	(43)	23	32	(19)	24	28	(15)
West Virginia	18	(28)	22	16	(2)	17		
Wisconsin	17	(21)	16	27	(24)	18	25*	(21)
Wyoming	15	(12)	15			14		

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